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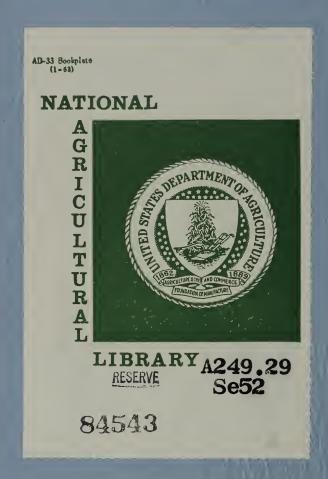
AN INTERAGENCY
MANAGEMENT
DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

HANDS ACROSS AGENCIES

OCTOBER 14-18, 1963   PULLMAN, WASHINGTON

USDA
SEMINAR IN MIDDLE MANAGEMENT
Washington State University
Pullman, Washington,
October 14-18, 1963

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                              Charles Kepner

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                              Washington State University

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                              Norman P. Dorpat
                              Employment Coordinator
                              Washington Water Power Company

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              A MANAGER. 37
                              Norman P. Dorpat

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                              E. J. Kreizinger

FOREWORD

This is a summary report of the SIMM Program held at Washington State University, Pullman, Washington, October 14-18, 1963. Employees of the USDA recognize that maintaining a high plane of service to agriculture and the people in the United States demands development of excellent managerial skills. It also requires a unified and cooperative spirit among all agencies within the Department of Agriculture.

The USDA Training in Middle Management (SIMM) Program was originally planned, organized and carried out under the director of the Secretary's Committee on Administrative Management. January 7, 1957, the Secretary issued Memorandum No. 1410, establishing the USDA Management Improvement Committee. May 1, 1957, this committee approved continuation of the Training in Administrative Management (TAM) Program. September, 1962, people representing every segment of personnel and management in USDA, met in Philadelphia to determine the needs of a new training program. A new training program, "Seminars In Middle Management," (SIMM) was the result. This program replaced the "Old TAM Programs."

The Departmental Management Development Task Force Report of October, 1962, entitled, "Developing USDA Managers" stated: We all know that the quality of performance which an organization gets from employees in its supervisory and managerial positions determines the success of its programs. It is, therefore, the policy of this Department to establish and maintain a systematic Management Development Program."

With this as a charter, the Office of Personnel has developed Seminars In Middle Management (SIMM) with the following objectives:

-- To review in detail some of the theories, goals, and techniques in the effective management of men, money, and materials; and
-- To analyze the manager's responsibilities towards subordinates, supervisors, associates, and himself.

PREPARATION OF REPORT

This report was prepared by participants of the SIMM Program designated as the "Editorial Committee" by the Planning Committee. Two reporters were assigned to cover each session. Summaries of talks and discussion sessions were prepared along with a biographic sketch of each speaker.

Clerical and typing assistance was arranged by Dr. Leland Strait, Assistant to the Dean of Agriculture and ably assisted by Henry (Hank) Wolfe, Extension Service. Dr. Strait also arranged for the printing and binding of the material into book form by the College Printing Department.

We trust this report will be helpful in recalling highlights of the Program at Pullman as well as serving as a reference for your everyday management decisions. The editorial committee was composed of the following:

William D. Hughes; Clark H. Ison; Harry H. Labes; Lloyd W. Sperry; J. Glenn Jones; Gilbert W. Dyer; William B. Howard; Arthur B. Johnson, Harold B. Smith; Robert A. McGregor; Archie D. King; Thomas S. Parke; Turner Bond; Wendell L. Harris; James L. Bowlin; Thomas M. Knapp; and A. E. McKee Chairman.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We, the participants of the October, 1963 SIMM Program, extend our most sincere appreciation to the SIMM Planning Committee, Arnold E. Whitaker, Chairman, John S. Fink, Clifford H. Goetting, Fremont McComb, Alfred E. McKee, Robert J. Olson, Emery C. Wilcox, Carter H. Wolfe, Secretary, and Henry Wolfe, for all the effort put forth in organizing and conducting the program.

We wish to extend special recognition to Arnold Whitaker and the members of the local planning committee for their efforts in assembling the ground work for this seminar session.

Special thanks to:

a. The speakers for their excellent presentations, demonstrations, and constructive discussion session on the various phases of middle management.

b. The CUB management for providing us with a well served banquet dinner.

c. The staff, Sally Valadez and George Buckanan, Office of Personnel, for their timely and outstanding assistance and cooperation in the plans of the SIMM program.

d. With added thanks and appreciation to Doctor Leland Strait for all the extra behind-the-scene activities of providing the space, material and outstanding hospitability on the Campus at Washington State University and for standing by to assist us in any way to make our stay more rewarding.

e. Our fellow participant reporters, who are responsible for the material in this, our book.

"A" Group--reading from left to right are: 1st row: Harold B. Smith, Robert A. McGregor, Gilbert W. Dyer, Robert M. Terrell, Jr., Robert E. Taylor, J. Glenn Jones, and James L. Murphy. 2nd row: Sid Livermore, Arthur B. Johnson, Lloyd W. Sperry, Gale J. Allen, A. J. Passey, W. D. Hughes, and George M. Delany. 3rd row: H. Clark Ison, Comer E. Smith, Bert H. Weinrich, William B. Howard, Herb Lozier, and Harry Labes.

"B" Group--reading from left to right are: 1st row: Joe B. Johnson, Lowden Johnson, Dale T. Nerlin, Thomas S. Parke, Thomas M. Knapp, Wendell L. Harris, and Elmer J. Davis. 2nd row: Wendell Prater, Talbert Sehorn, Peter Wingle, Jay Hughes, Jim Davis, John D. Webster, and Jim Bowlin. 3rd row: Turner Bond, Mel Roberts, Archie King, Patterson B. Int-Hout, Roy H. Maughan, and Leland C. Laudman.

Planning Committee and Staff--reading from left to right are: 1st row: Carter H. Wolfe, George Buchanan, Sally Valadez, and Arnold E. Whitaker. 2nd row: Fremont McComb, Henry Wolfe, Charles Kepner, Bob Olson, and A. E. McKee.

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

GROUP A

AMS	Gale G. Allen	Spokane Washington
	William D. Hughes	Portland, Oregon
	Robert M. Terrell	Portland, Oregon
ASCS	Clark H. Ison	Boise, Idaho
	Harry H. Labes	Spokane, Washington
	Sid Livermore	Port Angeles, Washington
	Herbert L. Lozier	Spokane, Washington
	Comer E. Smith	Salt Lake City, Utah
FCIC	Lloyd W. Sperry	Lewistown, Montana
FES	George M. Delany	Ephrata, Washington
	J. Glenn Jones	Puyallup, Washington
FHA	Gilbert W. Dyer	Wenatchee, Washington
	Anders J. Passey	Boise, Idaho
	Bert H. Weinrich	Spokane, Washington
FS	William B. Howard	Colville, Washington
	Arthur B. Johnson	Orofino, Idaho
	James L. Murphy	Riverside, California
	Robert E. Taylor	Granite Falls, Washington
REA	Harold B. Smith	Spokane, Washington
SRS	Robert A. McGregor	Sacramento, California

GROUP B

AMS	Archie D. King	Seattle, Washington
	Melvin E. Roberts	Portland, Oregon
ASCS	Lowden Johnson	Walla Walla, Washington
	Dale T. Merlin	Bozeman, Montana
	Thomas S. Parke	Spokane, Washington
	Wendell W. Prater	Ellensburg, Washington
	Talbert D. Sehorn	Portland, Oregon
FES	Turner Bond	Corvallis, Oregon
	Joe B. Johnson	Pullman, Washington
FHA	Elmer J. Davis	Ephrata, Washington
	Wendell L. Harris	Eugene, Oregon
	John D. Webster	Visalia, California
FS	James B. Davis	Berkeley, California
	V. Jay Hughes	Pendelton, Oregon
	Leland C. Landman	Sandpoint, Idaho
	Roy H. Maughan	Ogden, Utah
	Howard P. Wingle	Zigzag, Oregon
REA	James L. Bowlin	Salem, Oregon
SRS	Thomas M. Knapp	Seattle, Washington
FS	Patterson B. Int-Hout	Lakeview, Oregon

Mr. Buchanan is Head of the Training Operations Branch, Employee Development Division, Office of Personnel. He was born in Colorado, raised in Nebraska, and attended the University in Kansas and received a B.S. in Business Administration. After serving with the U.S. Navy during World War II, he transferred to the U.S. Army and served during the Korean conflict. He then entered the Federal Service as a Special Agent, Intelligence Division, Treasury Department, Washington, D.C., and transferred to the Office of the Secretary, Investigations Division, USDA, in March, 1957, and served in 48 states. He was officially transferred to the Employee Development Division, Office of Personnel, December, 1961, as an Employee Development Officer.

INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE OF PROGRAM

George H. Buchanan, Coordinator
USDA SIMM Program

SUMMARY*

Mr. Buchanan reviewed the background of the old TAM program and the change to Seminar in Middle Management. SIMM was started two years ago as a result of a meeting in Philadelphia at which heads of agencies submitted recommendations for formulation of the program. Seven such meetings were conducted last year and beginning in January, 1964, three meetings will be conducted in the field and three in Washington, D.C.

The objectives of the program are to (1) present new trends and concepts in management, (2) stimulate interest for further study and self-development, (3) meet and know sister agencies and their problems, (4) refresh memories and refocus thoughts of management.

Research is being conducted to determine the best possible methods of training such as, cost studies, analysis of areas where employees are over-trained.

Mr. Buchanan reviewed the functions of the USDA Graduate School and the possibility of using training centers on a cross-agency basis.

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*Summarized by W. D. Hughes, AMS, and T. S. Parks, ASCS.

Dr. Draheim's service with the USDA began in May 1942 with the Office of Personnel where he has held positions as Chief of Employee Development Division, Director of Recruitment, Assistant to the Director of Personnel, Personnel Officer, Administrative Officer and Training Officer. He also served with the Farm Security Administration, Economic Cooperation Administration, General Services Administration, Bureau of Census and as consultant to the University of Chicago in its Executive Development Program for Federal Administrators. During the period 1958 through 1961 he served as advisor in Public Administration for the University of Minnesota's contract with ICA and with the United Nations in Cairo as Chief Advisor to the UAR Government Institute of Public Administration.

He is a native of Minnesota, received his B.S. and M.S. degrees from the University of Minnesota and Ph.D. degree from Cornell University where he was a member of the faculty. He also served as a member of the faculty at South Dakota College before coming to work with USDA in 1942.

USDA AND ITS AGENCIES AND PROGRAMS
AND
NEW TRENDS AND CONCEPTS IN MANAGEMENT

Dr. E. R. Draheim, Chief
Employee Development Division
Office of Personnel

SUMMARY*

USDA and its Agencies and Programs

Dr. Draheim presented an interesting series of slides on the Department of Agriculture from the time it was originally developed to the present time. He discussed the functions of each agency and its particular program. This included a review of the 27 agricultural agencies in the Department.

New Trends and Concepts in Management

Long-range planning is being projected through 1973 for the USDA on the assumption that:

1. 25% of the department employees will be serving abroad.
2. Increased programs in consumer services.
3. More emphasis will be placed on Rural Area Development.

Planning for utilization of manpower will be effected in three main areas:

1. Equal employment opportunities.
2. Employment Management.
3. Automatic Data Processing.

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*Summarized by William D. Hughes, AMS, and Thomas S. Parks, ASCS.

Equal employment opportunities area was established by the signing of Executive Order 10925 on March 6, 1961 which promotes equal job opportunity benefits.

1. Single executive committee established.
2. Each agency head acts as a deputy on equal employment opportunities.
3. Equality based on qualification.
4. Full utilization of present employees.

How is this accomplished?

1. Better communications to employees and supervisors.
2. Effective recruitment program.
3. Enlightened management.
4. Right to hire and fire based on equal opportunity basis.
5. Processing of complaints.

Employment management cooperation was established by Executive Order 10988 which gives employees the opportunity to deal on an equal basis with their employer in government.

1. Rights of Employees

    a. To join or refrain from joining public organizations.
    b. Cannot join organizations which advocate the overthrow of government, strike against the government or which discriminates against employees.

2. Representation Units

    a. Craft, professional or other occupational lines.
    b. Exclusive recognition of employees or management.
    c. Professional or non-professional.

3. Degrees of Recognition (Determined by Office of Personnel)

    a. Informal
    b. Formal
    c. Exclusive

Automatic data processing has been used for 17 years and material advances have been made in its use. From this advancement the following systems are being developed into a workable tool:

1. MODE -- Management of Objectives with Dollars through Employees is an idea for using money and employees more effectively with the help of an automatic data processing system.

2. PADA -- Payroll Automation for Department of Agriculture will compute the pay of more than 96,000 Department employees and will compute payroll costs for the Department as a whole.

3. ADAM -- Agriculture Department Automated Manpower is a personnel reporting system.

4. FAME -- Financial Analysis of Management Effectiveness will gather, analyze, and report budget information.

5. MOHR -- Management Of Human Resources is a system for better management of personnel--a system for developing and using the best abilities of each Department employee.

6. GAME -- Gaming Analysis of Management Effectiveness represents a budgetary analysis system.

References

1. MODE - A New Approach to Public Management - Preliminary report September 1961. Prepared by ADP Study Group.

2. Ideas - Employee-Management Cooperation, Office of Personnel USDA August 1963.

3. Tips for Supervisors on Personnel Management, Director of Personnel, USDA.

4. USDA progress in Equal Employment Opportunity, Office of Personnel, USDA.

Dr. William H. Pemberton, Consultant in Psychology, Semantics, and Communications; Mill Valley, California.

Dr. Pemberton is presently employed as Consulting Psychologist in private practice. He lectures in Semantics and Communication at various colleges and universities around the U.S. He is lecturer-consultant for Management-Training, U.S. Departments of Agriculture, Army, Veterans Administration, FAA, etc. Dr. Pemberton received his B.A. at the University of Washington, did graduate work at the University of Bucharest, Romania and Columbia University, New York. He received his Ph.D. from the University of California. He is presently a member of the Industry Psychological Section, Consulting Psychology Section, American Psychological Association and the California State Psychological Association. Dr. Pemberton has published work in psychology, semantics, and communication.

HUMAN RELATIONS*

Dr. William H. Pemberton

Dr. Pemberton presented a semantic approach to the topic: Human Relations and Communication. Personal interrelations between individuals; drives, pressures, and influences were presented from a psychological viewpoint. With the aid of blackboard illustrations and demonstrations, he was able to translate this into terms meaningful to the participants. To eliminate the possibility of omitting many of the pertinent points, material supplied by Dr. Pemberton is being reprinted in lieu of a summary of the presentation.

A SEMANTIC APPROACH TO HUMAN RELATIONS

Dr. William H. Pemberton

As I see it, any specialist living in a democratic republic who has had the privilege or opportunity to collect information that is uniquely different from and potentially useful to others has the obligation to present such information so that anyone can and will understand it. As a Behavioral Scientist, that is my intent.

My topic is a semantic approach to communication. There are many ways of talking about semantics. The word itself comes from a Greek root that has to do with "signification." Sometimes we say that semantics is the search for the significant, the relevant, in contrast with the superficial. If someone were to ask you, "What is the most significant unsolved problem of

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our time?'', I wonder what reply you would give. My answer would be that man's inhumanity to man is number one on the list of man's major unsolved problems.

In a narrow sense semantics has to do with the study of meanings. In a broader and deeper sense we talk about it as the study of human evaluation, which means we study the human being as an organism which handles information. We also study the nature of the information--particularly our symbolic system (i.e., the world of words) which the organism uses to handle that information. Even more importantly, we are now beginning to study how information, once it has been internalized, determines our very reality--the ways in which we think, and feel, and behave. This information, early acquired and internalized, we call our <u>assumptive knowledge</u>.

In the past few years I have been studying the dynamics of human insult, and I find that much of human insult comes when one person questions, doubts, or criticizes the assumptive knowledge of another person. For instance, if you believe in God, and someone asks you why, or doubts the value of your belief, or is openly critical of such a belief, how do you react? Or, if someone asks you if you believe in free enterprise, in the democratic process, or more controversial issues, such as desegregation, the test ban treaty, interrupting the conceptual process by other than natural means, how quickly may you be insulted!

One of the useful bits of information about human nervous systems is that one's assumptive knowledge (which we call secondary nature) is indistinguishable from primary nature (our sensory and apperceptive processes) in determining the nature of reality.

Let me discuss now three different ways of talking about an experience; or, I might say, three different assumptions we can make about the nature of reality: the absolutistic, the relativistic, and the transactional. These represent roughly three stages of man's growing sophistication about the nature of himself and his cosmos. They could represent beliefs about reality that we might classify as pre-science, early science, and modern science, respectively. For purpose of demonstration, I sometimes distribute to my lecture groups bits of paper which have been dipped in phenyl-thio-carbamide, a harmless chemical which tastes bitter to approximately seventy per cent of the participants, but tasteless to the remaining thirty per cent. The papers are prepared by dipping a sheet of typing paper into the solution, drying it, and cutting it up. The result is that each person gets, comparatively speaking, the same amount of the substance. I then make a statement of fact about this event: viz., "There is no taste in the paper," which is valid for me. Then I ask what is the thinking of the group, and get such responses as "You're wrong " "You've a different paper," "You're crazy," "Your taste buds are faulty," and the like. The accumulated scientific information: whether or not you taste the paper is determined by your inherited genes. The insult patterns started, however, are mostly because of the <u>assumptions</u> about the event; for instance, one being that if we are having the same experience we must be reacting in the same way "or else someone must be wrong" (or deficient, or what not).

Let us look again at the three different assumptions that predominate man's thinking on this kind of event--whether it is through taste, sight, hearing, or other sensory modalities.

The assumption of the "absolutistic" person is that "the taste is in the paper" (i. e., qualities are in things).

The assumption of the "relativistic" person is that "the taste is in me" (i. e. qualities are in me; for instance, color is determined by the cones in my eyes); some taste it, some do not "so who cares?"

The assumption of the "transactionist" is that there is a transaction going on between what's in the paper and what's going on in me. Some people react to the transaction in one way, some in another. All I can talk factually about is <u>my</u> reaction to the transaction, and then make inferences or inquire about yours.

With this assumption of modern science, based upon our knowledge about human nervous systems, I am neither defensive about my reactions nor critical of yours. We may react alike, or differently, and thus learn from one another. We can learn what we have in common, and respect each other as to the ways that we are different.

In a similar way, we can talk about not only the similarities and differences in primary reactions, but also differences in feeling, in judgments, in standards, values, qualities, morals, meanings, which are based upon our individual and cultural collections, our secondary nature. This holds as well for our beliefs. If we find someone who has a belief or assumption about the nature of the cosmos which is different from our own, whether monotheistic, polytheistic, atheistic, pantheistic, or agnostic, the reaction is change from one of insult to one of interest, inquiry, and sharing.

An important reminder for some people is the fact that once I understand that your reality and mine may be different (by reality meaning the way we look at things, feel about or value them think about them) it <u>does</u> <u>not</u> destroy <u>my</u> reality, my values, my preferences; but it <u>does</u> make possible a respect for <u>your</u> reality. When my behavior becomes influenced by this modern assumption about the nature of reality, something in the manner of reciprocity begins to develop, simply because of the diminishing of insult, and the natural concern of homo sapiens for the survival of his own species. And please note: those who operate by the assumption of modern science respect the coexistence of those with other assumptions, while searching for still other assumptions more meaningful, more applicable to mankind. And while searching for these new assumptions, a self-revising process is going on.

My contention is that until we understand the assumptive level of human knowledge, until we learn something about the nature of nervous systems, and the evaluative process the best that we can do is learn to be tolerant of others who have different assumptive knowledge. This usually means putting up with others until they learn how things "really are, " and until they are "more like us, " which is, of course, the "right way" to be. (This is, of course, a series of assertions that is based on obsolete, absolutistic assumptions.)

Once understood, and once applied, modern assumptions can clarify such diverse subjects as: morality, law, education, ethics, politics, or religion. They can increase the potential of organizational structures from the simple to the complex. They can ease relationships within the family, or within the family of nations. They can operate more effectively on the job, in the home, within, between, or among the multiple institutions of man.

A key to diminishing man's inhumanity to man (the same key to improving communication as I see it) thus lies in the direction of the dissemination of knowledge about human evaluation, how brains establish and maintain reality; how assemptive knowledge may act as a barrier to effective communication, whereas knowledge <u>about</u> assumptive knowledge can open the gates to deeper understanding and can increase our capacity to be human beings.
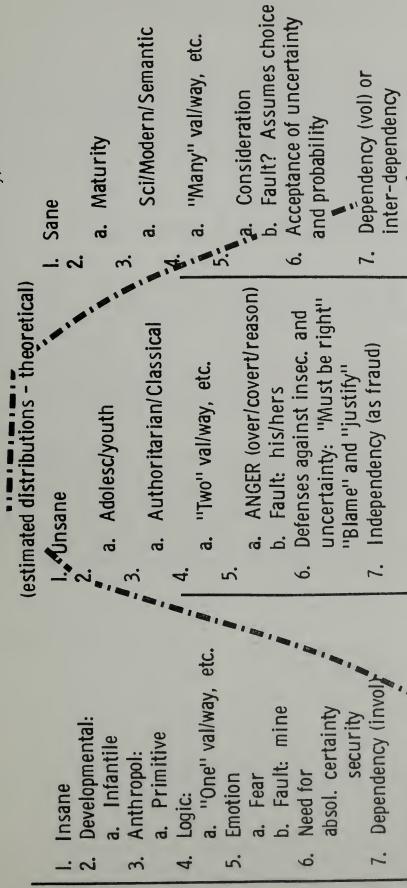
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<u>ETC: A REVIEW OF GENERAL SEMANTICS</u>

Pocket-sized, quarterly magazine included with $4.00 membership, International Society for General Semantics, Downtown Center, San Francisco State College, Powell Street, San Francisco.

SANITY SPECTRUM

(estimated distributions – theoretical)

	Unsane / Insane	Middle	Sane
1.	Insane		Sane
2.	Developmental: a. Infantile	a. Adolesc/youth	a. Maturity
3.	Anthropol: a. Primitive	a. Authoritarian/Classical	a. Sci/Modern/Semantic
4.	Logic: a. "One" val/way, etc.	a. "Two" val/way, etc.	a. "Many" val/way, etc.
5.	Emotion a. Fear b. Fault: mine	a. ANGER (over/covert/reason) b. Fault: his/hers	a. Consideration b. Fault? Assumes choice
6.	Need for absol. certainty security	Defenses against insec. and uncertainty: "Must be right" "Blame" and "justify"	Acceptance of uncertainty and probability
7.	Dependency (invol)	Independency (as fraud)	Dependency (vol) or inter-dependency

Line of comparative innocence (choice or not to be determined by indiv. case, not generalization)

8.	Time: Predom. "past"	Predom. "Future"	Predom. "present"
9.	Reality: Is so - period !	(varying degrees -)	To me is so, comma, etc.
10.	Semantics: Map is territory (Symbol is the symbolized - what is said is so)	(varying degrees -)	Map is not territory (Symbol is not the symbolized; may repr. or misrepr.)

NONDIRECTIVE REORIENTATION IN COUNSELING*

From time to time, clinicians have reported successes in, resistances to, or limitations of the use of general semantics in counseling. In "The Necessary and Sufficient Conditions of Therapeutic Personality Change" (Journal of Consulting Psychology, XXI [1957], 95-103), Carl R. Rogers abstracted common characteristics from among successful therapies. The paper reports a use of general semantics in counseling which is not mentioned in his treatise. The writer became aware of the method as a result of applying general semantics in his counseling work, which was predominantly directive, but in recent years has included nondirective methods.

The counseling technique recommended here utilizes some semantic procedures which correct verbal distortions and disorienting assumptions. These modifications can be transmitted nondirectively to the participant in therapy. An indirect communication of satisfactory semantic responses results in subtle but predictable influence by the counselor. Moreover, this influence by the counselor's orientation accounts for beneficial changes in the patient. By "subtle" we mean that the changed viewpoints, attitudes, and methods of

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evaluation seemingly come from within the patient rather than from the counselor. By "predictable" we mean that the developmental progress of the patient can be predictively validated by noting the changes in his use of language during counseling.

The present paper is limited to discussing certain kinds of nondirective influences in the counseling situation. First, there are the influences which correct <u>distortions due to lack of specificity</u> with respect to person (who), object or situation (what), place (where), and time (when). Second we take note of the influences which rectify <u>distortions due to a lack of questioning of common assumptions</u>, such as "universality" (assuming that we perceive and evaluate identically), "allness" (assuming that any perception or evaluation is necessarily complete), "sameness" (assuming that what we perceive or evaluate will not change), and "dichotomy" (assuming that there are only two, mutually exclusive alternatives to be used in assessing any perception or evaluation). Third, we shall consider the influences which dissipate the <u>distortions due to mis-allocation of referents</u>, such as the failure to designate value characteristics abstracted from person, object, or situation as reactions of the evaluator, General semanticists will recognize under these categories various distortions resulting from over-generalization, over-simplification, and misinterpretations of "is."

The multiple causes of these distortions do not directly concern us here. Let us simply say that they spring from the intricate interplay of "nature and nurture," or of development and learning over a long period of time. They may also arise in the interests of organismal economy, self-consistency, or the satisfaction of the need for certainty. Frequently, they appear as defensive or enhancing mechanisms among those whose self-feelings (confidence, judgment value) have either been destroyed (for example, through chronic criticism) or never developed (for instance, as a result of over-protection). Whatever be the causal dynamics, the frequency of these distortions is so high that we are inclined to label their occurrence as "normal." Unfortunately, one of the tragic results of thinking with these distortions is that they are self-perpetuating. They are reinforced through repetition, and very often they are "justified" in the name of logic, reason, or common sense. Moreover, the use of them by one person in an interpersonal situation leads to the appearance of similar or contrary distortions among others with whom he communicates. The sickening spiral of reinforcement often seems to be interminable.

We shall describe some clinical examples of these three kinds of distortions, giving samples of the nondirective language which may be used for therapeutic influence toward "self-correction." By the devices about to be cited, the unhealthy spiral of distortion may frequently be halted. The examples given have been chosen so as to give a fair characterization of the language used by persons undergoing counseling. The mirrored responses of the counselor are representative of the strategies which may be adopted in an attempt to correct the distortions exhibited in the patient.

Three types of language for mirrored correction and modification will be used: (1) that which diminishes (DIM) the patient's assertion; (2) that which is neutral (NEU) with respect to his assertion; and (3) that which accentuates (ACC) his assertion. One, two, or all three may be utilized, depending upon what strategy the counselor deems appropriate. The choice among mirrored responses also depends on the patient's degree of sensitivity and the nature of his defense. For those with especially sensitive self-feelings, the use of the

neutral type of response is recommended during the early stages of counseling. With an increase of self-acceptance and self-confidence in the patient, the other types may be employed. The clinician's feeling for the appropriate response will develop with his growing experience.

Any comment or gesture diverging from another person's viewpoint or evaluation is met with resistance. It is reckoned as an attack on his self-feelings. The kinds of responses given in our examples are, however, readily accepted, not only as acknowledgments of the patient's assertions but as modified responses worthy of further consideration. The diminished response (DIM) generally introduces a modified language (given in italics). The accentuated response (ACC) points up the exaggeration in the patient's assertion. Either of these responses results in increased specificity or in a change of orientation without alienating the patient.

I. Correcting Distortions Due to Lack of Specificity.

Distortions of person, object, place, or time are easily recognized as the "language of emotion." They express diffuse or over-simplified reactions.

1. Assertions by patients which indicate a lack of specificity of person (who) tend to be in the polar extremes. Some of the symptomatic terms are "everybody," "nobody," "people," "women," and "mankind." We give a typical assertion by a patient, along with the counselor's three kinds of corrective mirroring.

Pt: "Everybody feels this way."
Co: (DIM) "Sometimes you feel this is common to almost everyone."
     (NEU) "As you see it, this feeling is in everyone."
     (ACC) "You feel that not a single person feels different from that."

2. Similarly, assertions by patients expressing lack of specificity as to object or situation (what) tend to be given in terms of reference to "everything" or "nothing."

Pt: "Everything always goes wrong."
Co: (DIM) "It seems that a lot of things are not working out right now."
     (NEU) "Things are really giving you trouble."
     (ACC) "You feel that there never seems to be a time when things haven't been completely fouled up."

3. Assertions by patients due to a lack of specificity of place (where) are generally indicated by "everywhere" or "nowhere."

Pt: "It's the same everywhere I go."
Co: (DIM) "So far, everyplace you've been it has been this way."
     (NEU) "There's a discouraging sameness everywhere."
     (ACC) "You never have found it different anywhere."

4. Assertions by patients due to lack of specificity of time (when) frequently contain such terms as "always" or "never."

Pt: "He always lets me down."
Co: (DIM) "Up to now, he seems to have disappointed you."
    (NEU) "You get pretty discouraged about him."
    (ACC) "You can never think of a time in your life when he hasn't disappointed you."

Assertions with a time distortion appear to be the most common of those mentioned here. These include statements which express expectations, which communicate a feeling about the certainty of the future or which indicate a failure to consider time. The most frequently mirrored acknowledgment for these distortions is a sentence which includes the phrase, "right now you feel," as a focused reminder of specific "nowness." Such a response seems to make it easy for the patient to modify his feelings. He is given an opportunity to accept his inconsistency without "losing face."

II. Correcting Distortions Due to a Lack of Questioning Common Assumptions.

Although it generally requires more time, the modification of assumptive knowledge seems to lead to changes in orientation or viewpoint of greater magnitude and significance.

1. The person who operates with the assumption of "universality" takes it for granted that the objects, the modes of his perceiving and valuing are common to all men. He is shocked to discover that others' views are different. When he makes the discovery, he often finds it necessary to influence, or to guard against being influenced by, others who perceive or value in ways different from him.

Pt: "How could she like anything like that!"
Co: (DIM) "From your background and value system, you find it difficult to appreciate her tastes."
    (NEU) "Her tastes are pretty puzzling to you."
    (ACC) "To you it seems almost impossible for anyone to like anything so different from what you like," or "You sometimes feel that everyone should like the same things you do."

2. Those who employ the "allness" assumption have characteristics in common with those who appear to live by the "certainty" principle. The "allness" or "know it all" patient is one of the most difficult to engage in conversation; for, even if he asks the counselor a question, the reply he receives may not be acknowledged (because he already knows the answer). Frequently, the counselor simply does not know whether the patient is listening or has heard. In these cases, nondirective modification generally consists in substituting the language of probability for that of certainty.

Pt: "I already know all that."
Co: (DIM) "You are reasonably sure of yourself at this time on this particular subject."
    (NEU) "You feel that you really know this."
    (ACC) "You have no doubts, whatsoever that you know everything there is to be known about that subject."

3. Those who use the assumption of "sameness" seem to exhibit contradictory characteristics. On the one hand, they tend to resist change. On

the other hand, they are intolerant of sameness. The case we cite here also contains a distortion of time.

Pt: "He'll never change."
Co: (DIM) "Right now you feel that there's not much chance of his changing."
Pt: "I will always feel there's no chance of his changing."
Co: (DIM) "You feel certain right now that you'll always feel there's no chance of his changing," or "You feel right now that you can predict his future behavior pretty accurately."
(NEU) "You have no doubt about his not changing."
(ACC) "No matter how much time passes, his future behavior is destined to be just the same."

4. The assumption of "dichotomy" means that for the user there are only two ways to perceive, to value, to think, or to behave.

Pt: "If he doesn't love me, then he hates me."
Co: (DIM) "You are inclined to think that there are only two possible ways he may be feeling about you."
(NEU) "Feelings are an either-or proposition."
(ACC) "Love and hate are the only two possible feelings that he can have toward you."

III. Correcting Distortions Due to Mis-allocation of Referents

Distortions of this type seem to have the most devastating interpersonal reactions, although they are found very frequently in everyday parlance. They are the most difficult to modify nondirectively. Many referent mis-allocations are natural consequences of language structure itself; for example, "That lamp is atrocious" suggests that atrociousness is a characteristic in the lamp rather than a label for a complicated "transaction" involving perception, evaluation, and verbal expression of a complex situation. Citing another example we may remark that an assertion such as, "I can tell by the way he acts that he doesn't like me," does not consider the viewer's needs, values, or expectations. Another domain in which confusion arises is that of our feelings about others' feelings concerning us. Owing to a failure to allocate referents, we often find ourselves speaking with factual certainty about others' motives, feelings, wishes, or intentions--"I heard what you said; now I'll tell you what you really meant."

In cases of this type, the object of the mirroring technique is to re-allocate the referent for the evaluator, to help him develop awareness of distinctions between different orders of feelings (for example, between feelings and feelings about feelings), and to develop in him an awareness of how his standards, values, and expectations modify for him the object valued. This is in line with current perception theory and semantic practice. We will give five examples.

Pt: "That is bad art."
Co: (DIM) "As you see it, you would call that a pretty poor production," or "You don't like it."
(NEU) "You feel that it is pretty bad."
(ACC) "Badness is simply written all over that thing --there's no other way to talk about it."

Pt: "I know that's what he meant."
Co: (DIM) "You feel sure that you can <u>guess</u> his meaning."
(NEU) "You're quite sure of your <u>feelings about</u> his meaning."
(ACC) "You feel you can be certain of what he meant without asking him."
Pt: "I like him; he doesn't like me."
Co: (DIM) "You feel <u>pretty sure</u> about his feelings for you even without confirming them through him," or "He <u>apparently</u> has not been be-having as you would like," or "He doesn't <u>seem to meet your</u> stand-ards and expectations <u>right now</u>," or "It is interesting to me that you seem as sure of your feelings about <u>his feelings for you</u> as you do about your own feelings."
(NEU) "Although you like him, you feel sure that he doesn't like you."
(ACC) "You're sure when someone doesn't like you, and you can make that decision about anyone's feelings without inquiring of them."
Pt: "That man is stupid; he's driving to fast."
Co: (DIM) "You're <u>pretty upset</u> by his driving; he is going too fast <u>for you</u>," or "Does 'fast driving' mean that he's driving faster than <u>you feel</u> is safe? Anyway you would <u>call it</u> 'stupid.'"
(NEU) "You feel that that man is pretty careless."
(ACC) "'Stupid' and 'too fast' are the only ways anyone would de-scribe his feelings about that man."
Pt: "You know as well as I do that we will never get along."
Co: (DIM) "You feel that both of us are sure of the future on that score."
(NEU) "You're pretty sure of my feelings about your future as well as your own feelings."
(ACC) "There's just no doubt whatsover in your mind but that it will be impossible for us two to get on in the future, and further-more you are positive that I feel this way too."

Rewarding consequences follow from sharing experiences with patients in the manner we have outlined. As the counselor listens to and acknowledges the distortions, he apparently displaces the persons in the patient's immediate or remote past who criticized or rejected the distortions and thereby destroyed the patient's self-feelings and increased his defensiveness and distortion.

During therapy, the counselor can observe the varying reactions of the patient to the different choices among mirrored responses. A patient's stages of progress can perhaps be classified in the following way. (1) An acknowl-edgment of the different types of counselor mirroring through gesture or speech (for instance, "Yes, that's pretty much what I feel or had in mind"). (2) The halting onset of modified language (for example, "Lots of lawyers... ah... I know one, and I assume a lot... need..."). Upon the appearance of the modified language, the counselor mirrors an encouraging acknowledgment such as, "I like the way you put that," so that the modified viewpoints, atti-tudes, and language are reinforced. (3) The viewpoints and language in the mirrored responses become the patient's own--"Usually I feel pretty much this way." "I feel <u>more confident</u> I'll be able to handle a situation like that <u>when I get to it.</u>" "I <u>guess</u> he feels that way too, but I'm going to find out." "I would call that pretty silly." "<u>To me</u> it's atrocious--how do you feel about it?" "It's <u>interesting to me</u> that we feel so differently about her." "Maybe he hasn't changed much, but somehow I react differently now."

This paper has illustrated from case files how more accurate semantic structures and responses can be introduced into the nondirective interview,

enabling the participant in therapy to correct verbal and assumptive distortions. In part the method proves to be effective because the mirrored modification does not depart radically from the patient's original viewpoint and because the revision seemingly comes from within the patient before it actually becomes his own perceptive-evaluative mechanism. Moreover, the method introduces language structure and orientation which are more specific, structurally more accurate as regards language-event relationships, and more in harmony with recent behavioral science research. Clinicians may find it to be an aid in the healing arts.

Dr. Kepner received his Ph. D. in Social Psychology at the University of Michigan and is now a senior member of the Kepner-Tregoe firm in Princeton, New Jersey.

Dr. Kepner was previously employed by the Rand Corporation, Santa Monica, California, for several years. He worked on advanced systems information processing for SAC and other Air Force projects.

He left the Rand Corporation five years ago and started the Kepner-Tregoe management-consultant firm after six months research in decision-making. The Department of Agriculture has been sponsoring one-week courses in Management Problem Analysis and Decision-Making for the past two and one-half years which are developed by the Kepner-Tregoe and Associates. Dr. Kepner has been associated with these programs for the past four years.

MANAGEMENT DECISION-MAKING IN A CREATIVE ERA

Dr. Charles Kepner

Successful problem solving today demands an orderly, disciplined approach. As the diagram shows, you must follow a logical, systematic, step-by-step procedure which starts with the identification of the problem, progresses to the determination of its cause and then goes on to the development of a solution which is safeguarded by sound control procedures.

This sounds complicated, but it is not. If you study the technique and consciously apply it every time you run up against a problem in the next few months, it will soon become second nature. And when that happens, you will find that you are a much better, more efficient, more productive supervisor.

STEP 1: IDENTIFY THE PROBLEM

A problem is the difference between what should be happening and what actually is happening. Before you take action you have a moral obligation to get at the root of the problem, i. e., narrowing down to the IS factor.

Sometimes the onset of a problem is heralded merely by a vague, deep-down suspicion that things are not quite right. When you get that kind of feeling, the only way to determine whether you really have a problem is to sit down and figure out what should be going on and what is actually going on. If the actual doesn't equal the should the deviation is a problem.

STEP 2: SET PRIORITIES

Problems are not always single things. They often come in twos and threes. When that happens, you must rank them in the order of their importance and then tackle them one at a time. To do otherwise--to tackle them all at once--is only to confuse issues.

To determine the priorities of the situation, all you have to do is compare the problem and ask yourself which one must be solved first. Your answer will be based on the relative urgency of the problems, their relative

seriousness, and their relative importance to the Department's operations. You should also take into consideration the amount of information available about the problems.

STEP 3: SPECIFY THE PROBLEM

Once you've identified the problems and decided which to work on, your next step is to spell out what the problem IS. You must determine what the specific nature of the problem is, when the problem occurs, where it occurs and its size. Of equal importance, you must determine what the problem IS NOT in order to clearly see the limits of your problem.

SPECIFY THE PROBLEM

	IS	IS NOT	DIFFERENCE
WHAT:			
WHERE:			
WHEN			
HOW MUCH			

STEP 4: PINPOINT CHANGES THAT HAVE OCCURRED

Problems do not arise for no reason at all. They arise because something new, different and unplanned is introduced into a situation. In other words, the situation has changed.

Sometimes it's hard to see what has changed. Sometimes you can only find the crucial change that caused the problem by examining what is different between the IS and IS NOT elements of your problem specification.

STEP 5: LIST POSSIBLE CAUSES OF THE PROBLEM

As you examine your problem, you inevitably say to yourself, "I wonder what caused this. Could it have been this? Or was it that?"

Don't just speculate idly, tossing off one possibility after another. Write your ideas down. Every one of them. And be sure to use your specification and your exploration of differences and changes to help you come up with ideas of cause you might otherwise overlook. Then, when you can't think of any more possibilities, move on to:

STEP 6: TEST THE POSSIBLE CAUSES

One mistake that many managers make in trying to solve problems is this: Having spotted what appears to be a likely cause of a problem, they immediately start building a case for it.

Nothing could be worse. It wastes time. It may waste the effort of a number of the manager's associates and subordinates. It may very well lead to a wrong answer.

Once you've developed a complete list of possible problem causes, you must systematically check each one of them out against the specification of the problem.

How do you do this? Simply ask yourself: "If this is the cause of my problem, then what would be the outcome? Does this square with the facts of the situation?

If a hypothesis does not produce a simple, logical, complete explanation of what actually happened, as stated in your problem specification, you can discard it as a problem cause. But if it does produce such an explanation, you know that you have zeroed in on the answer. Or have you?

This you can't be sure of until you have tested all your hypotheses against the specification. Because if you find that several of them test out 100%, something is wrong. Either you have not specified your problem sharply enough, or you have overlooked some vital piece of information which must be entered in the specification.

There can be only one true cause of a problem, and until you find it, you can't correct the problem. In this case your examination proved that the difference in shade caused your problem.

STEP 7: SET DOWN YOUR OBJECTIVES

First write down the things you must accomplish. Then put down the things you want to accomplish.

The musts, of course, are the more important; and any course of action you take should accomplish them all. But the wants are certainly desirable, and if they can be attained without sacrificing the musts, so much the better.

STEP 8: REVIEW THE RESOURCES

What is available to you in the way of manpower, money, time, facilities, etc., and what are the limitations on your use of them? This is a matter you must consider at length, because it has a bearing on your ability to do what you've set out to do. Inevitably you will find some resources are better than others, and this will affect the course you take.

STEP 9: DEVELOP ALTERNATIVE COURSES OF ACTION

Just as it is important to consider many possible problem causes, so it is essential to develop--not just one--but a number of different courses of action. The reasons are obvious: You make best use of available information and resources. And you greatly improve your chances of coming up with a program of superlative merit.

Admittedly the job is demanding--tough on the lazy or impulsive manager or the one who is too rigid in his thinking to consider unusual ideas. But it's importance cannot be over-emphasized.

STEP 10:   EVALUATE ALTERNATIVES

It is a general rule that any problem can be corrected in several different ways.   A corollary is that not all possible courses of action are equally good.   Your job, then, after developing alternatives, is to compare them and see which is best.

There are three criteria to use.   Ask yourself:

1.   Will this course of action achieve my objectives? (What I must and want to accomplish?) Will it correct or change the condition which is causing my problem?

2.   Is this course of action feasible? Can I do it with the resources I have available?

3.   Will this course of action, if carried out, have any undesirable consequences?

STEP 11:   REVIEW YOUR CHOICE

Evaluation of the alternative courses of action leads to selection of one of them.   But before you commit yourself irrevocably to it, take a second look.

Make sure that it will accomplish your objectives.

Be certain that it is indeed feasible--that you really can carry through.

Above all, reconsider the consequences.

One of man's all-too-common failings is that he doesn't scout ahead. In his eagerness to do something--anything--he doesn't consciously look for all the possible results of his action.   Many many times these results are unpleasant--even disastrous.

Now at least you know what you're going to do.   But wait just a minute.   There is one more step you must take.

STEP 12:   SET UP CONTROLS

If there is anything in management that can be predicted, it is that things will not work out exactly as planned or expected.   Resources will turn out to be different, assumptions will be found invalid, flaws will show up in planning, elements of a plan will be miscommunicated, schedules will be garbled and the whole neatly laid-out scheme of action will be threatened with failure.

The only way to guard against these confusions, brushfires and crises is to look ahead and set up a series of control procedures which will warn you when corrective action is required.

Here are the four things you must do:

1. Anticipate what can go wrong and figure out what you can do to prevent it and what you will do if it does happen.

2. Set up a warning schedule. On a railroad there are semaphores which warn the locomotive engineer when he is a danger point. You don't need visible signals. But you do need a carefully worked out time-table which tells you when, during the progress of your project, you are likely to run into trouble.

3. Determine what should have happened when you complete each phase of the program. Here you are setting up standards against which the actualities of the program can be compared. For instance, you may say to yourself, "On July 1st, Joe Smith must be in the field." Then, if it happens that on July 1st Joe is not in the field, you know something has gone wrong.

4. Develop a system for receiving information about your program as it progresses. Decide who will be responsible for keeping an eye on things, when they should report back to you, and in what form you want their reports.

Mission Completed

Now, if you have taken the twelve steps essential to successful problem analysis and decision-making, you should be back at the point on the diagram where _actual_ equals _should_--everything is normal.

It won't stay that way, unfortunately. The supervisor's life is a series of problems.

But remember this: The more you practice this proven method of analyzing problems and making sound decisions, the easier each succeeding new problem will seem.

PART II*

Yesterday we examined the principles of problem analysis. Today we want to look at decision-making. The difference is that in problem analysis, you have two knowns to begin with and you are looking for the third unknown or cause. In yesterday's examples, we had the two knowns--where we should be and were not, and that we had a problem. The unknown was cause.
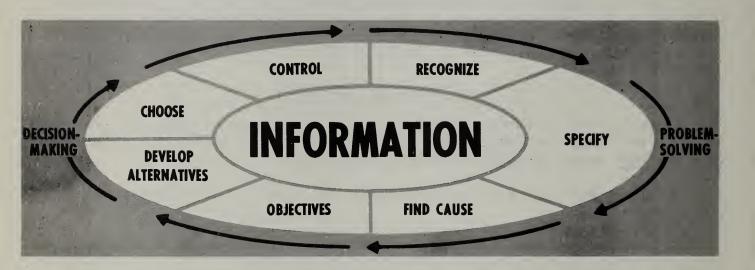
In decision-making, we get into a more complex situation, dealing with two unknowns. The only thing we know is where we are--we are looking for or have to establish where we are going (objectives) and alternative ways of

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getting there. In decision-making we need to know precisely where we are going (clear objectives). <u>Management is responsible for setting these objectives.</u>

Now we start climbing up the decision side of the diagram.

PROBLEM-SOLVING AND DECISION-MAKING

Objective - Setting is very difficult because:

1. One has to look into unknown or future--this takes hard thinking.
2. Have to set standards, criteria to measure performance.
3. People don't operate in this manner.

Now, let's take a problem that was sent in and take it through the decision-making process. Within the past two years the Farmers Home Administration has received numerous new authorizations in its loaning program. Some of these are loans for recreational enterprises, fish farming, farm labor housing, senior citizen rental housing, etc. Our employees are trained agriculturists who have little or no training in some of these new specialty fields in which we are now authorized to make loans and give supervision. The problem which is now facing us is how to train these people to handle these new responsibilities. Should we train all our people in these new fields or should we train a few of them as specialists in certain fields or would it be more practical to recruit people whom are specialists in these different fields?

Alternatives were specifically defined as:

1. Alternative A--Train all present staff and hire five additional people if necessary.

2. Train a selected group of better qualified members of present staff as specialists and increase staff to five people to keep up present staff.

3. Hire specialists (two or three) on a state basis and increase staff by five people.

Alternative three could result in higher costs because of higher salary, travel, etc. Then, we set up problem as follows:

DECISION ANALYSIS

SPECIFICATION OF OBJECTIVES	ALT. A	ALT. B	ALT. C	ALT. D
MUST LIMITS: RESOURCES				
Budget--Stay within limits	go	go	?	
Personnel				
Staffing	go	go	?	
Technical Knowledge	no go	go	go	
MUST REQUIREMENTS: RESULTS & RETURNS				
Public education	go	go	go	
Determine soundness of project	?	go	go	
Determine productiveness of project	?	go	go	
Determine eligibility of applicant	?	go	go	
Determine capability of applicant				
Advise, plan, budget and monitor with applicant	?	go	go	
Handle wide variety of projects	no go	go	go	
Handle all applications-Heavy load	go	go	go	
Process in 45 days	go	go	go	

WANT: MAXIMUM SAVINGS, BEST USE OF CRITICAL RESOURCES	Wt.	V	S	V	S	V	S	V	S
Personnel									
Best use of staff skills	3	5	15	7	21	10	30		
Best use of staff effort	2	7	14	10	20	10	20		
Least cost to do job (Train)	2	4	8	4	8	10	20		
Least time to implement	2	5	10	5	10	10	20		
Use present organization	1	10	10	8	8	5	5		
Least cost to operate	3	10	30	7	21	5	15		
RESOURCE WANTS, Subtotal	/////		87		88		110		

DECISION ANALYSIS		ALT. A		ALT. B		ALT. C		ALT. D	
RESOURCE WANTS, Subtotal fwd.	Wt.	V	S	V	S	V	S	V	S
WANT: MAXIMUM RESULTS, RETURNS									
Put Agricultural land to prod. non use	1	10	10	10	10	10	10		
Give best Guidance and Advise	2	4	8	6	12	10	20		
Improve acceptance by public	3	6	18	7	21	10	30		
Operation expandible thru time	2	5	10	7	14	10	20		
Operation controllable	4	5	20	8	32	10	40		
Responsibilities kept clear	4	10	40	5	20	8	32		
Provide best service to entire area	2	8	16	8	16	10	20		
RESULT, RETURN WANTS Subtotal		209		213		282			
WANTS, TOTAL									
DON'T WANT: ADVERSE CONSE-QUENCES (Value = probability WILL occur)									
Detrimental to community	10	1	10	0	-	0	-		
Lowering of morale	6	0	0	2	12	1	6		
Restricts performance	3	0	0	4	12	6	18		
Acquiring new capability	3	10	30	6	18	1	3		
Temporary overload of personnel	10	1	10	1	10	2	20		
Conflict with other agencies, private organ., etc.	10	1	10	0	0	1	10		
Embarrassment to USDA	1	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Precedent for future action	4	2	8	1	4	0	0		
Rising costs, hidden technology	3	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Increasing complexity	2	3	6	1	2	1	2		
Risk of failure	8	3	24	2	16	1	8		
Resistance to program/employee	5	3	15	2	10	1	5		
Too rapid expansion	3	1	3	1	3	2	6		
Scarce employees	2	0	0	0	0	0	0		
Under development	4	3	12	1	4	0	-		
Operation overload	5	3	15	2	10	1	5		
CONSEQUENCES, TOTAL		143		101		87			

Note on scoring:

1. In must column - "go or no go" situation.

2. In want column - we assign a relative weight as to what is most valuable. Value X weight = score.

3. In don't want column - weight according to seriousness of consequences if it does occur. Value assigned on basis of probability that it will occur. Value X weight = score.

Summary Conclusions

On this problem the decision is clear because "C" gives you most in terms of advantages and least in terms of adverse consequences.

Method does these things:

1. Procedure brings criteria used and value judgments out in open where they can be examined.

2. Whole process can be examined by others.

3. Bias can be reduced.

4. Allows for re-examination to overcome objectionable features.

5. May open up other alternatives that have not been examined.

Dr. Theophilus was trained at Iowa State College having received the B.S. degree in 1920, the M.Sc. in 1924 and the Ph.D. in 1935.

Prior to becoming president of the University of Idaho, in 1954, he had served there as Professor and Head of the Department of Dairy Husbandry, Dean of Agriculture, Director of Agricultural Experiment Stations and Director of the Agricultural Extension Service.

THE NEED FOR PUBLIC ADMINISTRATIVE TRAINING*

Dr. Donald R. Theophilus, President
University of Idaho
Moscow, Idaho

Dr. Theophilus opened his address by congratulating the Department of Agriculture for its resourcefulness, aggressiveness and willingness to allocate money for training in management.

He went on to state essentially that private business has long recognized the need for training in management. Harvard has been conducting courses in advanced management since 1949, and in middle management since 1954. The graduates of these courses are testimony to the need for (and the success of) the training.

Administration and management, according to Dr. Theophilus, mean essentially the same thing. One cannot differentiate one from the other. Each means planning, organizing, directing, motivating and controlling the activities of people to accomplish a purpose. These are the same dictates in both private and public administration. The rewards are the same. In one the rewards are monetary. In the other the rewards are in the form of services rendered. These services of course must be acceptable to the people being served.

The field of management is related to the behavioral sciences, which would include psychology, sociology and perhaps anthropology. Management and administration must take into consideration the rules of social structure, status, perception, feelings, emotions, and communications. These factors are the perennial concern of men charged with the task of administration at the higher levels.

The standards of management are the same in both public and private administration. These standards are:

1. OBJECTIVITY. The administrator must be honest, accurate and complete in his assessment of facts. He should not be emotional or partisan in his decisions.

2. SELF DISCIPLINE. The administrator must have self discipline and

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*Reporters--A. B. Johnson and Clark Ison.

do what has to be done at the time it should be done. His conclusions must be based on truth and fact. Students often fail because of the lack of self discipline. Discipline is usually the last thing people learn (if they learn it at all).

3. STAY WITHIN CHANNELS. Organizations should stay within their formative authorities. Unless lines of authority are followed the results will be empire building by administrators and confusion and chaos in trying to accomplish an objective.

4. KINDLINESS AND COURTESY. Kindliness must be tempered by intelligence. An administrator must be fair. Equality must prevail. Give credit where credit is due. Courtesy is imperative above all in a public servant.

5. COOPERATION. Cooperation in an administrator is the ability to compromise and to give ground without giving up ideals and principles.

6. LOYALTY. Loyalty is a fundamental quality; it ranks with honor, charity and justice. Without loyalty no organization can be truly effective. By loyalty we do not mean abridgement of the right of free expression or criticism. No agency can realize the ultimate in service and efficiency without loyalty.

7. IMAGINATION. Creative thinking is applied imagination. To inspire people to think is the goal of teachers and managers. Ideas are needed to solve people problems as well as technological problems. Machines are important, but man must have the idea first. Ideas of men are the realism of imagination and have made it possible for man to stay alive, conquer the world and will make it possible for man to conquer space.

8. HUMOR. The administrator must have a sense of proportion and warmth in personal relationships.

9. COMMUNICATIONS. There are all types of organizational communications. People are rewarded by being a part of things. The administrator should try to reward loyalty by a word of thanks or a letter. People must be appreciated and given an opportunity to serve the organization and other people. Each person must know the standards, the policy and understand policy development if they are to be an effective part of the organization. We need to transmit ideas accurately, both by the written and spoken word.

Mr. Kreizinger received a B. S. in Agriculture from the University of Nebraska, and an M. S. in Agriculture from Kansas State College. He spent four years teaching and coaching in Nebraska high schools; six years in research and teaching, Agronomy Department, Washington State University and U. S. Department of Agriculture, Division of Forage Crops and Diseases; a year and a half with the Washington Co-op Farmers Association, in the area of seed production; seventeen years in Extension at W. S. U. , also part-time in the College of Agriculture as Professor of Agriculture.

COMMUNICATING IN MANAGEMENT AND
GETTING ACTION BY GROUPS*

E. J. Kreizinger

Introduction

Communication is transmitting and receiving ideas, or understanding and being understood. In all cases there should be a "feed back" to be sure that the communication has been understood. Without this causes of conflict can arise such as (1) differences in meaning (2) evidence differences (3) interpretation problem (4) reasoning, and (5) values (what I am). There are several ways to overcome conflicts. Force or arbitration can be used. Neither is desirable. The decision-making process should be used to resolve a conflict.

The balance of the presentation by Mr. Kreizinger concerned how to go about getting social (group) action on an idea. Tests in 10 North Central States indicate that adaptor categories for a new idea or practice on the farm as a function of time can be predicted to approximate a normal distribution curve.

A small group of innovators, about 2. 5 per cent, adopt new ideas or practices rapidly. The early adopters, 13. 5 per cent, soon follow. Neigher of these groups are considered leaders. Most people, about 68 per cent, are in the early majority and majority categories. Most of the leaders come from this group since they are in step with the times. At this point, an idea or practice is considered to be well diffused. The non-adopters or laggards, about 16 per cent, always resist new ideas or practices and are the last to change.

*Recorded by Robert McGregor and William B. Howard--Editorial Committee.

Similar research indicates that middle managers in industry and government face the same behavior. Realizing this, what is the best way to obtain group action on a good idea?

The following steps or phases must be considered in any Social Action program.[1]

1. The Social System

    a. All Social Action takes place within an existing social system. This may be the State, County, Community, Church, etc.
    b. We must have a general understanding of the social system to know what parts are important to our own Social Action program.

2. The Prior Social Situation--For every given Social Action there must exist some past experience in the social system which relates to the kind of Social Action now under consideration. We should determine the actual existing experience or prior experience relating to the proposed Social Action Program.

3. The Idea

    a. Originates in one person's mind.
    b. Can be a person inside or outside the group.

4. Relevant Social Systems--We have identified, in Step 1, the social system in which the Social Action will take place. At this point we must identify specific social systems or sub-systems within the larger system that will be concerned with the problem or idea stated in Step 3.

5. The Initiating Sets

    a. With one or two other people.
    b. Do they agree or disagree with the idea?
    c. Are there alternatives?

6. The Legitimation State

    a. In almost every community, or social system, there are certain people or groups that seem to have the right authority and prerogative to pass on things to make them legitimate ideas. These people are called "legitimizers." They put a stamp of approval upon the idea.
    b. Legitimizers may be--

        (1) Formal, administrators, clubs, etc.
        (2) Informal, certain individuals or cliques.

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[1]Condensed from CTP material presented by Bohlen & Beale, Iowa State College.

7. <u>The Diffusion Stage</u>

    a. The diffusion stage takes the program to the public. In each case careful evaluation should be made to see who does this.

    b. Quite often the idea originators made very poor diffusers.

8. <u>Definition of Need</u>--Once the diffusion set is established we try to make the problem become the people's problem. A number of techniques can be used to get large numbers of people to see a problem and identify it as one of their problems. Some of these are:

    a. Basic Education
    b. Program Development Committees
    c. Comparison and Competition
    d. Exploiting Crises
    e. Demonstration or Trial
    f. Building on Past Experiences
    g. Channeling Gripes

9. <u>Commitments to Action</u>

    We must also get a commitment to do something. This may be--agreement to attend meetings; to act at proper time; to pledge money; to take part in program; vote of confidence.

10. <u>What We Want to Achieve</u>

    a. Once a felt need is established, out of it must come some definite targets, goals or objectives. Some of the people must be willing to try. Whatever we try must be spelled out in:

    (1) Good criteria for goals.
    (2) Content of goals.
    (3) Human behavior changes we wish to bring about.

11. <u>Explore Alternative Methods or Means</u>

    a. Considering all alternatives, arrive at the best present alternative and proceed to set up the plan of action.

12. <u>Set Up the Plan of Action</u>

    a. What is to be done.
    b. Who is to do it.
    c. When it is to be done.
    d. How it is to be done.
    e. What facilities are available.

13. Mobilizing and Organizing Resources

    a. Mobilize and organize our resources so the plan can be carried out. Once we have the plan on paper we must find--

    (1) The time.
    (2) The people.
    (3) The resources.
    (4) The physical facilities.
    (5) Whatever else is needed to actually carry the plan into action.

14. Launching the Program

Launching might take the form of--

    (1) A fund drive.
    (2) A series of tours.
    (3) A big kick-off dinner.
    (4) A big full-page ad campaign.
    (5) A telephone network call.
    (6) A big publicity splurge

15. Carry Out Program

    a. This consists of the various action steps necessary to carry the program forward.

16. Continuing and Final Evaluation

    a. Between each of the action steps, as at all the places along the Social Action scale, (as indicated by the circular arrow), we stop and evaluate. We evaluate what we have done; our next immediate goal; alternative methods for reaching that goal.
    b. Make the next move in light of this evaluation.
    c. Final or total program evaluation.

    (1) Did we accomplish what we set out to do?
    (2) Were the methods good?
    (3) Did we make good use of resources?
    (4) Why was the program successful?
    (5) Or why did it fail?
    (6) How would we plan differently if we were to do it over again?
    (7) What did we learn?
    (8) Where do we go from here?

Trial Problems

Several problems were partially worked out by the seminar groups using the above Social Action technique.
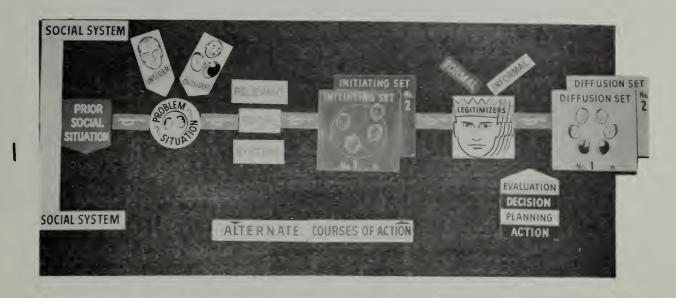
Conclusions

To communicate ideas in a democratic situation the idea must be consistent with the needs of the recipient. Understanding and acceptance are essential before action can be taken. Constant evaluation is necessary throughout the process. These things can be done by using the Social Action process.
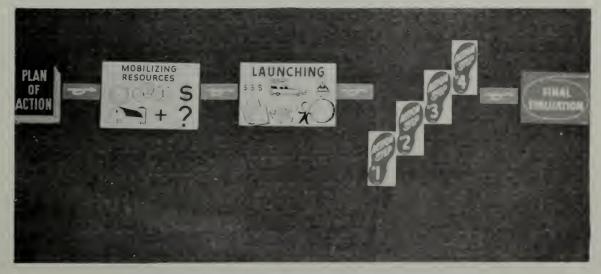
Acknowledgment

These Social Action steps have been condensed from a paper "Social Action" as presented by Drs. Bohlen and Beale, Iowa State College.

CONSTRUCT FOR SOCIAL ACTION
read from left to right

Norman Dorpat attended the University of North Dakota for one year. He earned a B. S. degree at Whitworth College and did some postgraduate work at the University of Washington.

He was Instructor Professor of Psychology and Education in 1950 at Whitworth College. In 1955 he became Employment Coordinator, Washington Water Power Company, Spokane, Washington.

ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITY OF A MANAGER

Norman P. Dorpat
Employment Coordinator
Washington Water Power Co.

Introduction

Knowledge has doubled within just a few recent years. Supervisory and management skills are far behind other technology. Within the last two-three years, study in this area has been speeded up. Major areas for exploration in the supervisory management area will be taken up under the headings of Organization, Cost and Work Load, and Supervision.

Several categories of problems emerge in study of organization that might be identified as follows:

1. Relaxed Standards in Relation to People's Expectations.

Our potential for performance is much greater than our actual output. People waste time if they do not understand their required level of responsibility, even though they know their job description. Evidence is ample that people can respond to good guidance. People can perform remarkedly if expectations are high, and the need is great. The inertia principle is powerful, and people tend to relax if they can. In low competition, standards relax and people slow down.

2. Overstaffed Condition.

American business has a larger proportion of the work force in supervisory positions than other Western countries. This has tended to be tightened within recent years. Low competition allowed this to happen, increasing pressure of salary levels and competition from European sources has reduced the trend. Farms have had to make economy moves, and have

found that people can really put out production. With a proper staffing level and all jobs requiring a high level of effort, workers show increased satisfaction and efficiency.

If company goals become important to the individual worker, then productivity is increased. Some companies have been overstaffed because of maintaining a historical symmetrical structure, that results in jobs with unclear or unrealistic work assignments. The owner-manager has tended to maintain the most efficient structures, but more operations become corporate each year, and salaried management is less vigilant in this regard.

3. The Crown-Prince Approach.

A situation where the top manager grooms an administrative assistant to succeed to the top spot causes serious problems. The second level job has no definite responsibilities, and the competitive spirit of lower echelon personnel is frustrated.

4. Coffee-Break Environment.

The one-happy-family relationship does not usually achieve production objectives. The goal of this relationship, that of good employee morale and acquaintance, does not carry over into work output.

5. Clearly Defined Responsibility.

A man grows by having responsibility. In order to be responsible, he must have authority to act, and must have full accountability for his acts. The factor most in danger of being dropped from modern business philosophy is accountability. If an administrator has authority for firing a subordinate, then that subordinate is in truth, accountable to him. In many modern organizations, this authority no longer is part of a supervisory job. If there is no authority to fire, then authority to train, guide, or influence in other ways is weakened. Accountability must be applied in terms of real standards, real guides, and as consequences of not reaching specific goals.

Responsibilities should be defined as to decisions. There should be little overlapping, and the supervisor should know how final his decisions can be.

Goals should be defined in responsibilities. Short-term goals against which progress can be measured must be spelled out, and progress measurements actually made. Long-time functional goals are needed, also, to give incentive and direction.

A committee, meeting under a supervisor, will try to do what the supervisor wants. Some one person needs to have clear responsibility for decision, even though a committee may work on a particular problem. Committees have the value of giving training to workers, and in many cases making the participants feel good, but are poor decision mechanisms.

Cost and Work Load

Rising costs are the number one industry problem, with the greatest increase being in labor. Size of staff and salary raises at all levels, have

brought about increases. In considering opportunities to reduce personnel, many distinctions between sporadic and full-time employment are overlooked. Short-day or short-term employees have shown high productivity in relations to cost, and may offer savings in many cases. Worker pools also offer a way to handle peak loads with less full-time employees. More and more firms are available to supply this type of help.

Overtime work has proven to be a factor in good morals, if workers can see that their contribution is important. Pay raises are factors in good morale, if the worker and supervisor understand between them, the basis for the raise. Where work loads may be too light, there is actually a loss of efficiency, because workers' attitude and work pace become tuned to a lower output.

Cost reductions in firms come not only by reducing actual pay-out, but can come from improvement in results and expanded efficiency.

Supervision

Testing programs conducted by Washington Water Power to select supervisors proved that not much value could be obtained from these tests. However, they did separate the real poor from the really good. This test brought out the differences in two areas. The poor prospects showed up badly in these two areas and the good prospects showed up good. The areas were:

1. Willingness to take on responsibility.
2. Tact and good judgment with subordinates and superiors.

Results of studies conducted at Washington Water Power in supervisory techniques show trends in the following:

1. What is true in one unit that makes good supervision is not always true in another.
2. Pace set by supervisors is usually followed by subordinates.
3. A democratic approach is most effective, through involving workers in the goals of the company.
4. Employee-centered approach pays off.
    Work with employees on personal basis.
    Emphasize sense of contribution by employees.
5. Supervisor should have real responsibility, authority and accountability.

Problem submitted to a group of supervisors: An employee has made a suggestion to the supervisor. This suggestion was turned down with no good reason for rejecting it. Three answers to select from.

1. Agree with action and accept decision.
2. Tell him it really has merit.
3. Accept decision and return when he is more receptive.

Number three was selected by better qualified employees. Number one was selected by poorer quality employees.
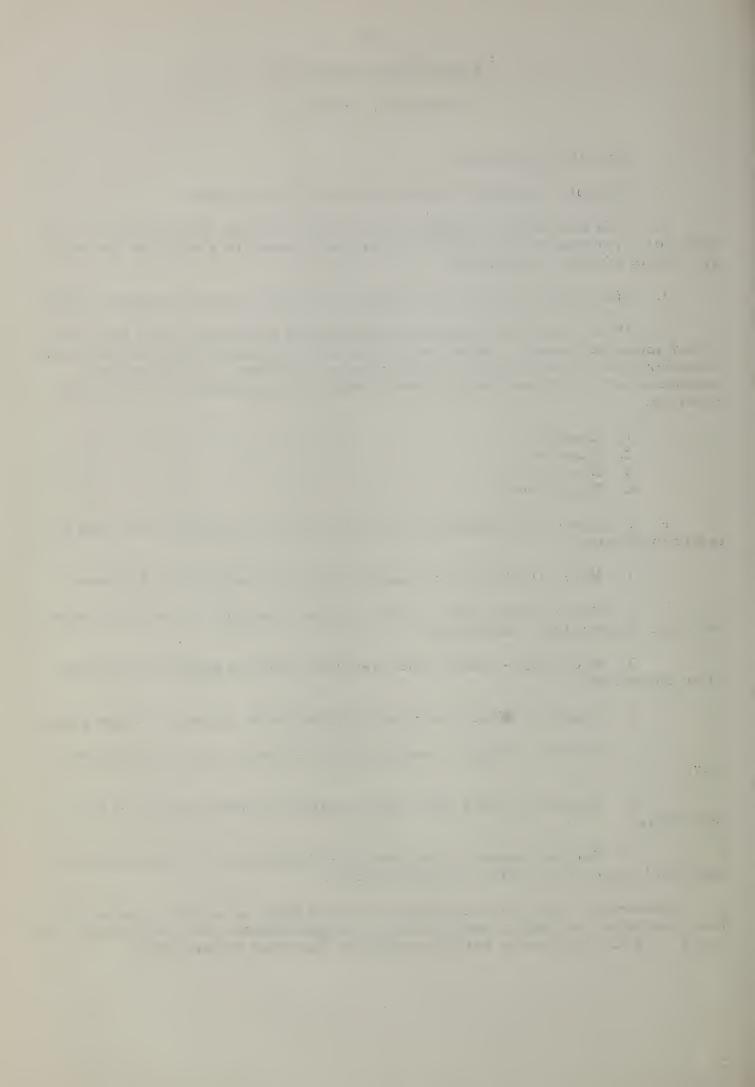
EMPLOYEE APPRAISAL

George H. Buchanan

A. Appraisal is not new.

B. Employee appraisal works both ways--up and down.

C. Full utilization of human resources is the true responsibility of the manager. A complete and effective appraisal system is a tool that the manager cannot afford to be without.

D. Many types of appraisal systems are being tested throughout USDA.

E. Performance standards when developed effectively gives basis for a sound appraisal system. Major responsibilities of the job must be taken into consideration in development of performance standards. A performance standards sets forth satisfactory performance on each item of your job considering:

1. Quality
2. Quantity
3. Manner
4. Timeliness

F. In all systems managers should be aware of certain errors and attempt to eliminate:

1. Halo--Don't look at employees through rose-colored glasses.

2. Bias--Perhaps the greatest danger--Avoid traps such as color, location, personality, and religion.

3. Knowledge--Clear understanding of the job and the employees to be appraised.

4. Leniency--Don't overlook deficiencies to maintain "happy shop."

5. Severity--Appraise employee on his performance and opportunity.

6. Potential--Make appraisal on current performance, not on expectations.

7. Keeping posted--Managers must be advised of improvements in appraisal systems and utilize where possible.

Remember a poor appraisal may do more harm to an employee's attitude, initiative and office morale than any single mistake that the manager can make. Be fair and just to both the employee and your organization.

EMPLOYEE AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT

George H. Buchanan

1. The supervisor is reasonable for setting and pursuing goals adequate for developing <u>his</u> and <u>the employee's</u> potential.

2. Responsibility for an employee failing to carry out an assignment rests with the supervisor.

3. Today more than ever before, a manager is judged by the way he develops his staff and himself.

4. Career Development

    a. Basis for improvements

        (1) Not satisfied with performance
        (2) Desire for change

    b. Determine if you

        (1) Want to change
        (2) Are willing to make the effort
        (3) Are willing to pay the price--Rewards can be great but sacrifices may be required.

    c. Following methods are available:

        (1) Lecture
        (2) Discussion
        (3) Performance evaluation
        (4) On the job training

5. Keys to executive potential

    a. What are you <u>worth</u> to your agency?

    b. Can you think <u>creatively</u>? Devise new and better solutions to problems. Outline objectives and evaluate alternatives. Create a climate conducive to creativity by others.

    c. Can you make <u>decisions</u>? Do you get bogged down or side tracked? Work toward an executive position only if you like and can make decisions.

    d. Can you maintain <u>good relations</u> with your boss, employees and the public? Follow "The Golden Rule."

    e. Are you an effective <u>leader</u>? Does your staff follow you or do you have to push?

    f. Can you live with <u>stress</u>? People are different. Some can take more than others. Are you free of stress when away from the job? Check with your family.

g. Do you have a <u>personal development program</u>? Reading, community activities, church activities, school board, etc.
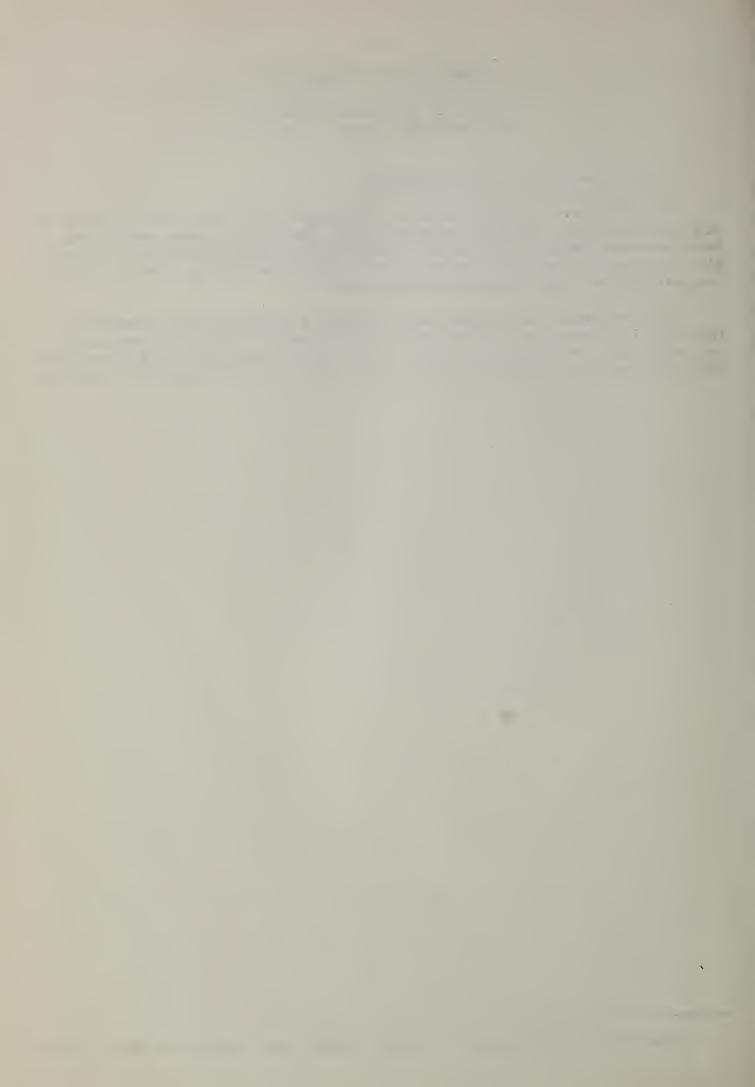
SUMMARY OF WORKSHOP*

Arnold E. Whitaker, Chairman
Pullman SIMM Planning Committee

What does it take to be a manager?

Mr. Whitaker set forth many of the attributes which go into the make-up of a good manager. He also reviewed briefly the subject matter which had been presented during the seminar--understanding and getting along with people, communications, problem analysis and decision-making, administrative responsibilities, appraisal and development.

Mr. Whitaker paid tribute to the members of the planning committee, the editorial committee, and all others who helped in making the seminar a success. He also expressed appreciation to Dr. Leland Strait and Washington State University for the fine arrangements made to accommodate this seminar.

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*Summarized by Herbert L. Lozier, ASES, and Thomas M. Knapp, SRS.

CLOSING

Sally A. Valadez
Assistant Coordinator
U. S. D. A. SIMM Program

Mrs. Valadez thanked the Planning Committee for their efforts in planning the seminar and bringing it about. She expressed pleasure at the alert, progressive nature of the managers who had been selected for the attendance at the seminar and commended them for their interest and participation.

Certificates were presented to the participants by Mrs. Valadez. She asked each participant to submit an informal evaluation of the seminar including criticisms and suggestions for improvement of future seminars.